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ABSTRACT

This document describes and assesses an ongoing systematic approach to educational renewal through staff development that has been in progress for the past four years in two school systems--Eastern Lancaster County School District and William Tennent High School, both in Pennsylvania. The essential characteristic of the staff development learning process is substantive dialogue among teachers and administrators, and its primary aims are (1) empowerment of teachers and administrators, (2) improved teaching and administrative practices, and (3) organizational changes necessary to support the first two aims. Section 1 states the aims of the dialogue approach to staff development, describing the essential theoretical principles, based on John Dewey's philosophy, on which the dialogue is deliberately constructed. Section 2 sets forth some of the major outcomes that have emerged over four years across the two sites. These reveal a general pattern of success in achieving the three aims. Section 3 restates the major theme of the article: that school renewal efforts that respect the intelligence of teachers and administrators and that link this intelligence to a process that is both democratic and inquiring can achieve significant practical outcomes in the morale of teachers and principals. It also summarizes the practical outcomes and raises one fundamental problem the approach must solve if it is to be a primary means to educational renewal: the dialogue process frequently delays the testing of more fundamental solutions to educational problems by giving the appearance of progress while leaving untouched the fundamental deficiencies of structure and process. (TE)

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STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATIONAL RENEWAL THROUGH DIALOGUE IN TWO SCHOOL SYSTEMS:

A CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT

by

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By sufficient preliminary conversation you can avert a catastrophe. ...Apart from conversation, from discourse, and communication, there is no thought and no meaning...just events, dumb, preposterous, destructive.

John Dewey
Characters and Events, 1, p. 129

PART I

THEORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE DIALOGUE PROCESS

OVERVIEW

This article describes and assesses a systematic approach to educational renewal through staff development in two school systems. The work reported in each school system covers a period of at least four years and is continuing.

The primary means used to effect fundamental renewal in each school system is staff development. The essential characteristic of the staff development learning process is idea-based dialogue among teachers and administrators. The primary aims of the staff development process, stated in general terms, are empowerment of teachers and administrators, improved teaching and administrative practices, and changes in the organizational structure of schools that are necessary to support the first two aims.

The theory and practices used to achieve these fundamental aims, the practical outcomes of these practices, and their assessment are given in three sections of this article described below.

SECTION 1: THE APPLICATION OF THEORY TO EDUCATIONAL RENEWAL AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Section 1 states the aims of the dialogue approach to staff development, states three principles that energize and structure the dialogue, and summarizes the theory on which the dialogue is deliberately constructed. The primary theory source is Deweyan philosophy. This section is essential to understand our work.

Section 1 describes the ideas--the conceptual and value structure--that gives the dialogue its power as a process for adult learning.

SECTION 2: AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PRACTICAL OUTCOMES OF THE DIALOGUE APPROACH

Section 2 states some of the major outcomes that emerged over four years across two sites. The outcomes in the sites reveal a general pattern of success in achieving the three aims; the outcomes are site specific to some degree.

SECTION 3: A SHORT ASSESSMENT TO THE DIALOGUE APPROACH TO SCHOOL RENEWAL

Section 3 restates the major theme of the article, summarizes the practical outcomes, and raises one fundamental problem that this approach must solve if it is to be a primary means to educational renewal.

SECTION 1: THE APPLICATION OF THEORY TO EDUCATIONAL RENEWAL THROUGH STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Our work is guided by an explicit theoretical perspective based on Deweyan philosophy. Useful theory conceptually clarifies the essential nature of educational phenomena and authentically simplifies and orders them. The theory is reflected in the three aims for staff development which will be given first. Theory will then be directly related to the three principles which provide the criteria by which means are chosen to reach the aims.

AIMS OF THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The staff development process is directed by three primary aims.

I. The staff development process should empower those who participate in it. We define empowerment to mean the capacity of educators (and board members) to improve the quality of educational practice through democratic means to enhance the intelligence and sensitivities of students, teachers, and administrators.

2. The staff development process should improve learning-teaching practices and administrative practices in fundamental ways. Fundamental learning-teaching practices mean those practices that cultivate the intelligence and sensitivities of students and teachers as demonstrated by the results achieved in school settings; e.g., a reading program based soley on basal readers would most likely be rejected and an integrated language experience approach accepted because the latter approach would be judged to offer greater opportunities for intelligent choices to be made by teachers and students. Fundamental administrative practices are those practices that support fundamental learning-teaching practices.

3. The staff development process should increase the ability and willingness of the participants to change the organizational structures in schools or the school system that inhibit better practice.

Structural elements that may inhibit better practice are site-specific and include such things as they way time is scheduled for teachers and students, the testing program, supervisory practices,

and the number of different courses taught and their relationship to each other.

Note that the aims are not "product" aims. They do not state, for example, any specific end such as better teaching "skills". The aims stated are, rather, facilitative, intermediary aims that, when attained, will increase the chances that the specific ends chosen by school staffs to renew their school will be thoughtfully considered, be fundamental rather than peripheral, and be related to the school system context in which they are supposed to work.

PRINCIPLES ON WHICH THE DIALOGUE PROCESS IS BASED

If the aims stated are necessary and difficult, the means chosen to "reach" these aims must be both powerful and comprehensive. The criteria for the choice of means are explicitly stated in the three principles that follow.

Principle One states that practice must be guided by ideas that are continuously tested in practice; Principle Two states that the ideas and values learned through practical experience must be both deepened and criticized by formal ideas introduced through other sources; and Principle Three states that the staff development process is energized through dialogue that is informed and democratic.

Principle One: Practice is an intellectual activity and must be guided by ideas that encourage inquiry. Practice must be continuously assessed and its worth determined on the basis of its intended and unintended outcomes

based on a coherent educational theory which is itself tested and judged on these outcomes.

It is easy to give a casual nod of acceptance to Principle One and dismiss it as a truism. Why enshrine the obvious in a principle? The reason is that idea--a coherent conceptual structure that values thinking and humane values--rarely acts as a guide to practice in most public schools today. Can any knowledgeable participant in public education seriously hold that ideas and thought are encouraged by most faculty meetings? By the typical district-wide meeting of administrators? By most staff development programs? By most supervisory encounters? By most teaching?

Documentation for these assertions is not difficult. Nonintellectual teaching, emotional flatness, bureaucratic paralysis, and a technocratic mind-set are surely themes in the works of Goodlad[1] and Sizer.[2] The seeming immutability of didactic teaching to change since 1890 and its relationship to the way schools are organized has been reasonably documented by Cuban.[3] The nonintellectual and mechanistic qualities of Hunter's model of teaching which is the primary focus for many staff development programs today has been demonstrated by Gibboney.[4] Most staff development programs are fragmentary and perceived by teachers to

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1 John I. Goodlad, A Place Called School (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1984)

2 Theodore Sizer, Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School (Boston:Houghton Mifflin Company, 1984)

3 Larry Cuban, "Persistent Instruction: Another Look at Constancy in the Cl;assroom", Phi Delta Kappan 68 (September 1986): 7-11

4 Richard A. Gibboney, "A Critique of Madeline Hunter's Teaching Model from Dewey's Perspective" and "The Vagaries of Turtle Research", Educational Leadership 44 (February 1987): 46-50 and 54

be useless.[5] If the themes of deficiency and neglect just cited are true, we can infer that supervision has not been a powerful corrective force. Supervision seems to have some serious internal problems of its own.[6],[7]

And even research, whose sanction we crave while avoiding its discipline, must be reconceptualized and brought closer to the realities and uniqueness of educational life and weaned from its technocratic ways if Eisner[8] is correct.

It seems that thought--ideas--grounded in concrete school situations has taken flight from practice. We seem unwilling to test the worth of our ideas in our practice. This is the condition with which Principle One tries to deal. It is precisely the condition that Dewey[9] addressed in 1916.

"To test the worth of our ideas in practice" is a powerful phrase. To Dewey this implies an intelligent selection of ends that have intellectual and social meaning, the deliberative choice of means, taking action and, finally, reflecting on the results that follow from the actions "to test their worth." This process suggests the essence of "reflective teaching" or "reflective administering." "To test the worth of ideas in practice" implies that the confusions of practice are capable of being ordered and redirected by

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5 Thomas R. Stretton, "Staff Development: Design, Implementation, and Assessment of a Comprehensive Program". Ed.D. dissertation University of Pennsylvania, 1982, 276pp.

6 W. John Smyth, "Clinical Supervision: Technocratic Mindedness, or Emancipatory Learning", Journal of Curriculum and Supervision 1 (Summer 1986): 331-340

7 Noreen B. Garman, "Clinical Supervision: Quackery or Remedy for Professional Development", Journal of Curriculum and Supervision 1 (Winter 1986): 148-157

8 Elliot W. Eisner, "Can Educational Research Inform Educational Practice?", Educational Leadership 41 (March 1984): 447-452

9 John Dewey, Democracy and Education (New York: The Free Press, 1968. Originally published by The Macmillian Company, 1916)

intelligence, that misjudgments and error can be corrected by reflection and further action--that the educational process is an open process not a closed process as technical rationality asserts.

By denying thought a major role in practice we denigrate the worthy and complex subject matter of education. Is not the social complexity of a high school and the problems to be defined and solved to make it more intellectual and democratic as worthy of thought as the chemical composition of a new synthetic oil? As worthy of thought as the baffling behavior of sub-atomic particles in physics? But most educators, unlike their scientific brethren, deny and try to avoid the complex nature of their subject matter. Educators faced with an inconsistency in the "data," or with a failure of practice, not only deny the problem by not defining it as a problem but, even more strangely, as we shall show later, try to correct the vaguely felt effects of failure by reaching into the same black box of implicitly mechanical programs that created the problem to draw forth yet one more mechanical "solution" be it more testing, more time-on-task, or more direct teaching such as that endorsed by Hunter[10] which is based on positivistic research.

A process is mechanical to the extent that it is beyond deliberate redirection by intelligence.[11] We can only make sense of unfolding, complex educational events by legitimately simplifying and ordering them in accordance with a set of ideas--a theory--that provides criteria to guide us in setting aims and choosing means, in

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10 Madeline Hunter, "Knowing, Teaching, and Supervising" in Philip L. Hosford, Ed., Using What We Know About Teaching (Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984)

11 Dewey, op. cit., chapters 11-14 on thinking, experience, and method. Page 170, among others, specifically speaks to this point

defining problems, and in elaborating possible solutions for testing in the context of practice.

Our recognition of the primacy of idea to practice, whether that practice be staff development, teaching, or supervision, is what makes our work very different from most practice today. Our willingness to test and to develop this belief in long-term, field-based efforts directed to comprehensive educational renewal is what makes our work different, too, from most university-based work where research or theoretical writing is too often disconnected from the enriching and sobering complexities of school renewal.

It is the primacy of ideas in practice that is initially most difficult for administrators and teachers to understand--it sounds impractical to them. That reflective practice is viewed as impractical, that idea linked to practice need even be seriously defended, is itself disturbing evidence that educational practice is dominated by an implicit mechanistic and technocratic theory that values a spurious symmetry to the contingencies and perplexities of thought in practice.

The pervasive and unexamined presence of the technocratic mindset among practitioners is a major obstacle to making schools better places within which to teach and to learn. We refer to this condition as the conceptual block to educational reform. Because its presence and negative effects are often hidden within the dark forest of "getting things done" and within the oppressive "busyness" that is unfortunately a reality for teachers and administrators in the public schools, we will try to paint a word picture of the

technocratic mind-set better to recognize it when we see it in the rush of practice.

Most of the exposition in Principle One will be given to delineating the characteristics of the technocratic view. Many of the positive ideas that we believe should replace the technocratic mind-set are stated in our discussion of Principles Two and Three. (Principle Two also includes an analysis of the process-product research paradigm which is an example of a technocratic epistemology shared by many academic researchers on "effective teaching" that sanctions and supports the technocratic mind-set held by many practitioners--a connection that is often over-looked and which adds to the "invisibility phenomenon" of this world view.)

Our first example of the apparent usefulness of the technocratic view, and of the innocence with which it is held, comes from Theodore Sizer.

Sizer gives a poignant vignette of a superintendent in Horace's Compromise[12] that describes well the lens through which practice is viewed by many administrators.

"The superintendent," Sizer writes, "is quick, able, political. (The superintendent) talks about 'raising' mathematics and science requirements. Business wants it he tells me. Attendance is up. Vandalism is down. Management systems are now fully computerized; Horace's compromise (I think) is embedded on a floppy disk. He's impressive and is looking for a city superintendency, a job demanding more of his undoubted bureaucratic skills. His system is effective, 'efficient'."

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12 Sizer, op. cit., p. 200. Emphasis added

Sizer speculates that this is what America may want. The media may rant about a crisis in education but educators do not act as if there are serious deficiencies in their own schools. Sizer then makes this observation that speaks directly to the spirit of our first principle: "My wanderings among schools convince me that (educators) do not want to examine the wisdom of their schoolkeeping habits: they like the way they are....Some improvement, yes. *Fundamental reassessment, even honest reflection on the structure of school? No .*

Goodlad is not too hopeful about the leadership capacity of principals. His research and practical work with school principals leads him to the reluctant conclusion that most principals lack the abilities for educational leadership. They cannot, Goodlad reports, define *significant* educational problems, built a long-term change agenda that has *continuity*, or build a *working consensus*. Principals, it seems are hired for their non boat-rocking qualities and the assets of *intelligence, creativity, and courage* are neglected.[13]

The words of Callahan in Education and the Cult of Efficiency echo in the observations of Goodlad and Sizer. In a chapter entitled "An American Tragedy in Education," Callahan says that the values of efficiency and a specious concern for the immediately practical were well-rooted in university programs for administrators by 1925. These programs subordinated educational questions to managerial concerns, and" ...produced men who did not understand education and

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13 Goodlad, op. cit., pp. 306-307. Emphasis added

scholarship..." and who approached" ...education... (in a) mechanical, organizational way" [14]

Are administrative programs much different in most universities today? We think not. Courses in administration, we suspect, still define educational leadership in the technical spirit of Callahan's 1925 curriculum. School law and collective negotiations, for example, are seen as practical necessities whereas developing perspectives on critical issues of learning and teaching are deemed unnecessary for an efficient manager of the "school plant."[15,16]

The technocratic mind ignores complex organizing concepts that give coherence and tentative direction to practice. It is impatient, for example, with the abstractness of a Dewey or a Piaget; it translates the abstractness of ideas, essential to conceptual coherence and explanatory power, as impracticality. The technocractic mind turns away from the legitimate complexity of learning or of a school conceived as a social system. It is bored with talk about aims or the nature of knowledge or how the mind knows or the empowerment of people or the contingencies of teaching or staff development. History is useless, philosophy a bore. Social science may be accepted if its findings can be easily

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14 Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency: A Study of Social Forces that have Shaped the Public Schools (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962), pp. 246-247

15 Daniel Tanner and Laurel Tanner, Supervision in Education (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1987) pp. 48-49

16 National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, 'Leaders for America's Schools", (Tempe, Arizona: The University Council for Educational Administration, 1987)

converted to rules with the qualifications omitted according to Eisner.[17]

The technocratic mind values quantification, standardization, and discrete pieces removed from wholes; the technocratic mind is much taken with what "research says" but it is uncritical of its contradictions or of the mechanistic assumptions on which it is often based; the technocractic mind shuns talk about values, it assumes a posture of value neutrality when in fact its implicit values are materialistic (which is one reason why it is hostile to ideas); the technocratic mind values learning in small steps and linear sequences; and, finally, the technocratic mind values teaching efficiency based on rules derived from positivistic research removed from worthy aims and management efficiency based on top-down communication and worker supervision (illustrative references

17 Elliot W. Eisner, The Educational Imagination: On The Design and Evaluation of School Programs, 2nd Edition (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1985); Eisner, "Can Educational Research Inform...," pp. 447-452

include Bernstein[18], Callahan[19] , Eisner[20], Garrison and Macmillian[21], Koestler[22], McNeil[23] , Schubert[24] , and Wann[25]).

Do we make too much of the technocratic mind-set? Not at all. This attitude of mind, hostile to the necessity of intelligence to guide practice and uneasy about processes that are not tightly linked to measurable objectives, however trivial, is what makes it difficult to initiate and to sustain an informed dialogue approach to educational renewal that we are discussing in this paper. This mechanistic mind-set is the single major obstacle within the profession to making schools more thoughtful, more feeling, and more democratic places in which to study and work.

When the general characteristics of the technocratic approach are translated into curricular particulars, there is little solace for those who value intelligence. The now defunct Chicago Mastery Learning Program in reading was found to teach urban kids how to take mastery level tests in reading but it did not teach them to read

18 Richard J. Bernstein, The Restructuring of Social and Political Theory (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1978)

19 Callahan, op. cit., 1962

20 Elliot W. Eisner, "The Art and Craft of Teaching". Educational Leadership 40 (January 1983): 4-13

21 J. Garrison and C. Macmillan, "A Philosophical Critique of Process-Product Research on Teaching", Educational Theory 34 (Summer 1984): 255-274

22 Arthur Koestler, Janus: A Summing Up (New York: Vintage Books a Division of Random House, 1978)

23 John D. McNeil, "A Scientific Approach to Supervision" in Thomas J. Sergiovanni, ed., Supervision of Teaching, 1982 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1982), 18-34

24 William H. Schubert, Curriculum: Perspective, Paradigm, and Possibility (New York: Macmilan Publishing Company, 1986)

25 T. W. Wann, ed., Behaviorism and Phenomenology: Contrasting Bases for Modern Psychology (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964)

and it gave them little or no experience in reading real books.[26] The DISTAR reading program is so skeptical of teachers' intelligence that it provides written scripts to follow! DISTAR is a caricature of the human being as a machine. Individually Guided Education, touted by its developer Herbert J. Klausmeier, University of Wisconsin, as a fundamental change to personalize learning and to make learning more active, was found, instead, to encourage students to do orderly work in carefully sequenced materials, to conform and not to question, and to develop a technocratic rather than a critical mental attitude.[27]

One could reasonably infer that the students' minds and feelings are surely diminished by programs such as these. The technocratic blinders lead us to a false solution that distorts essential human capacities. Worse, by a kind of cultural osmosis, the teachers and administrators who uncritically accept technocratic curricular solutions and the linear skill-type staff development programs attendant on them, internalize a normative value that such programs are "good" and believe that the school is getting better. Students and teachers and administrators who are impaired by a false technology learn to love the dependencies that are mutually created. They are prone to reject, without inquiry, other curricular and staff development approaches that might free them because they have been programmed to prefer a false precision to the ambiguity and complexity of true thought. "Inquiry" is a word

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26 Education Week, August 21, 1985

27 Robert V. Bullough, Jr., Stanley L. Goldstein, and Ladd Holt, Human Interests in the Curriculum: Teaching and Learning in a Technological Society (New York: Teachers College Press, 1984)

that is not in the vocabulary of an educational technocrat however prominent it may be in the works of serious students of education.

Men and women trained to the mind-set of a vacuous technocratic efficency and for whom, in the New Speak of the trade, maintenance of the status quo means progress, will find it difficult to hear, much less act on, the reformers' call for the greater exercise of mind. Unheard, too, will be another generation of students who surmounted boredom to learn to read but who learned not to want to read, and for whom the joy of learning was lost in a blizzard of teacher directions, 40-minute periods, and acres of questions whose possible array of answers never exceeded four.

Technocratic theory rips educational reality into discrete pieces; it then selects for attention only those pieces of a diverse and partially known reality that fit its rigid preconceptions for quantification, sequencing, and behavioral objectives. The technocratic mind distorts reality to fit it methodological and theoretical preconceptions--this is, ironically, subjectivism run wild! Inquiry, critical probing and thinking about worthy ends and appropriate means, is discouraged because the rigid technocratic edifice will collapse under this stress.

Dewey, on the other hand, avoids the classic subjective-objective daulism of the technocratic mind-set by putting mind in experience in which the "subjective" and the "objective" fuse. Reality, in Dewey's view, is something to be known, to be laboriously squeezed from experience by thought tied to action. Ideas are not cookie cutters to impose a shape on reality; rather ideas both shape and are reshaped by reality. The system is an open system, an

interactive system in which "truth" is prospective and always tentative.

It is essential, and very practical, to remind ourselves that ideas are potent instruments to create an environment better to serve humane and social ends. Technique without ideas is like a compass without a needle.

"No experience having meaning is possible," Dewey wrote, "without some element of thought....Thinking...is the intentional endeavor to discover specific connections between something which we *do* and the *consequences* that *result*, so that the two become *continuous*" [28]

Principle One asserts the primacy of ideas over technique in educational renewal. Ideas can help us make a unity of things otherwise diverse and confusing. Dewey unifies thinking, action, and consequences, theory and practice. This is a step toward the clarity that is essential to practical action. Deweyan theory views experience as a unity, not as something made up of discrete parts as the technocratic view asserts.

Thinking requires knowledge that may not be gleaned alone from practical experience, important as experience may be. Principle Two develops the implications of more formal knowledge in staff development.

Principle Two: Good practice requires that one read books. Books provide ideas and values both to deepen and to criticize the ideas and values learned through practical experience in teaching and in administering.

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[28] Dewey, op. cit., p. 145. Emphasis added

Principle Two provides one essential means to act on the Deweyan premise that practice which shuns ideas becomes nonintellectual and mechanical.

The word "books" means books but it does not exclude articles or other experiences that may impart ideas into practice. Books are in the primary position, however. Books are essential because they provide the depth and scope from which a more coherent conceptual structure can be built and from which to critique and assimilate the more piecemeal content of the articles.

The (slow) development of a coherent conceptual structure within which to view and transform practice is a critically important element in our approach to educational renewal.

We believe that it is unlikely that hard-pressed educators can make good practical decisions about such things as the current fad for thinking skills or skill-based models to improve teaching without an explicit conceptual structure which suggests that some things are better than other things for certain reasons. A working knowledge, for example, of Callahan's classic, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, and Cremin's[29] Transformation of the School, two books used in our dialogue, pose some educationally substantive questions about skill approaches as the primary means to improve teaching or thinking. Only by way of example and to over-simplify what is a complex decision involving more than two books, one could carefully review a particular skills model for teaching such as that

29 Lawrence A. Cremin, The Transformation of the School: Progressivism in American Education 1876-1957 (New York: Vintage Books, A Division of Random House, 1964)

advocated by Rosenshine[30] , and reasonably place it in a historical tradition that has definite educational qualities and value. One would, for example, place Rosenshine's teaching model in the tradition of people such as Thorndike-Bobbitt-Cubberly; another teaching approach, such as Taba's inquiry model, is more easily placed in the tradition of people such as Dewey-Parker-Rugg. Each of these traditions is characterized by very different views of mind, teaching, and the desirable ends that learning-teaching should pursue.

Merely reading short and fragmentary articles on teaching or supervision, to continue our example, or listening to speakers exhort one view of teaching or another, in the absence of an explicit and guiding conceptual structure, is not likely to lead to effective practical decisions. To do so is very much like hiking in unknown mountainous territory without a map. In the mountains, we get lost; in education, we grab fads. Both amount to the same thing.

It is not possible in the short space of an article to adequately describe in detail the readings and how they are used. We will, then, describe some of the readings and their use in illustrative outline.

The readings chosen follow the general movement of the dialogue. How did we get to where we are? The historical perspective. What are some significant issues today? The present perspective. Where might we go? How do we begin to move to something better? The future perspective.

30 Barak Rosenshine, "Synthesis of Research on Explicit Teaching", Educational Leadership 43 (April 1986): 60-69.

This general movement or phases of the unfolding dialogue holds for long time periods such as 12 or 15 months or more; within the shorter time period of a three hour session or two, talk might be "in" any one of the three time periods. The important criterion is that the pattern of the content and process of the sessions over time be consistent with the spirit of the aims and principles. Deviations, or even sessions that might be judged to be failures at one point in time, do not make any long-term difference. There is enough "mass" in this approach to absorb short-term error, bad luck, and poor judgment calls.

THE HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The historical perspective is provided by the books of Callahan and Cremin supplemented by articles or book chapters such as McKeachie's article[31] on the fall of the laws of learning and Dennett's[32] chapter on behaviorism, "Skinner Skinned". Callahan's Education and the Cult of Efficiency describes the evolution of the American public school in which

the values of management, control, and efficiency displaced sustained concern with the intellectual and emotional qualities of learning and teaching. The book makes clear, for example, why high school teachers "teach" 150 kids each day.

Cremin's book, The Transformation of the School, deals with the social forces, ideas, and people who helped to shape both the "traditional" and the "progressive" views of education.

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31 W. J. McKeachie, "The Decline and Fall of the Laws of Learning", Educational Researcher (March 1974): 7-11.

32 Daniel C. Dennett, Brainstorms: Philosophical Essays on Mind and Psychology (Cambridge, Ma.: Bradford Books, 1978).

One meets Thorndike and Dewey in these pages; Cubberley, Rugg. And behind them industrialism, that merciless engine of social change, and the progressive political response to the social problems it raised--and it is these forces and these people that transformed the school. To not know something of these things, is to forget one's name.

THE PRESENT PERSPECTIVE

The present perspective is treated by books such as Goodlad's A Place Called School, Peters' and Waterman's In Search of Excellence,[33] Sizer's Horace's Compromise, and Joyce and Weil's Models of Teaching,[34] . The particular books used vary somewhat by site. The important function to be served is to create an awareness of what presently exists and to suggest general alternatives to improve it. Selected chapters from the books cited are read. In Goodlad, for example, we usually read the chapters that describe the patterns of teaching observed, the teacher and the conditions that surround the teacher, and the recommendations to improve learning and teaching.

The initial sessions of the dialogue use articles. Articles are used because it is easier to choose a piece that is relevant to the three aims of the dialogue and, more important at this critical early stage, to give the participants an experience in reading that they perceive as interesting and enlightening. The intention here is

33 Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman, Jr., In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies (New York: Warner Books in arrangement with Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1982).

34 Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil, Models of Teaching, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1986).

implicitly to begin to undermine the prevailing attitude that reading is dull and has no place in on-site staff development programs (or, more generally, reading has no serious role to play in improving practice).

We usually begin the first session with Eisner's "The Art and Craft of Teaching".[35] This article presents teaching as the artistic and intellectual enterprise it truly is. It sanctions teaching, teachers feel "good" after reading it because it articulates what many of them tacitly know. The article begins with a critique of behaviorism, educational research, and scientific management. This introduces some of the important historical themes which we will develop, in the group's good pace, in Callahan and Cremin. These themes, we feel, are essential if teachers and administrators are to develop a critical perspective on the present and to learn the many ways of their technological entrapment.

We might then read an article from a different perspective such as McKenzie's "Improving Instruction Through Instructional Design".[36] Comparisons in tone, texture, and assumptions are made between the two articles to elucidate ideas that may guide practice but also to begin the slow process of developing a thoughtful stance toward practice. Teachers and administrators find that the discussion is invigorating--and new. They bring their "war stories," concerns, and musings to bear in the discussion and the first tentative hints are given about the group's vigor and "personality."

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35 Eisner, op. cit., pp. 4-13.

36 Gary R. McKenzie, "Improving Instruction Through Instructional Design", Educational Leadership 37 (May 1980): 664-669

At this point we have the beginning of a constructive dialectical tension between two fundamental schools of thought and practice. This tension is constructively fed also by the participants' deeper but still unverbalized frustrations and hopes carried through years of practice where colleagial talk was a rare thing.

THE FUTURE PERSPECTIVE

The primary theory that directs the eye of the participants to a vision of a better school is Deweyan philosophy. The use of philosophy to do fundamental work in school renewal is a radical and powerful element in the dialogue. Is it possible that Dewey's Democracy and Education, written 70 years ago, offers a more constructive theory to reshape learning and teaching today than does the research on effective teaching or effective schools? Is it possible that Dewey's general philosophical theory is a better source from which to generate practical actions for school renewal than are the more specific and empirically based findings on effective teaching offered by writers such as Brophy, Good, or Berliner? We believe that the answer to these questions is a firm "yes". Our reasons for this belief are given below.

Our defense of Deweyan philosophy as the primary knowledge source for fundamental school reform raises complex epistemological questions that cannot be fully treated in the context of this article. Our arguments should be read as partial statements, as illustrative reasons, that could be adequately supported in a fuller discussion which, we believe, would be consistent with the logic and pattern of this discussion.

The major reason that Deweyan philosophy is a powerful theory is that it attempts to give a coherent and comprehensive account of the essential elements that constitute the phenomena of "education". This commitment to comprehensiveness is characteristic of the philosophic stance. Philosophy attempts to establish a comprehensive framework within which separate facts and events may be given coherence and meaning by explaining reality in the most general and systematic way. "Educational philosophy seeks to comprehend education in its entirety, interpreting it by means of general concepts that will guide our choice of educational ends and (means)."[37]

Perhaps the best way to convey the quality of Dewey's thought is to cite a few excerpts from Democracy and Education that relate to learning and teaching, only one of several major domains that Dewey addresses in the book. These excerpts are also illustrative of the ideas called for in Principle One.

> Communication is a process of sharing experience till it becomes a common possession. It modifies the disposition of both parties who partake in it (p. 7).

> (The education of the young) cannot take place by direct conveyance of beliefs, emotions, and knowledge. (This) takes place through the environment (p. 22).

37 G. F. Kneller, Introduction to the Philosophy of Education (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1971), p. 4

(An aim helps to make intelligent action possible.) A true aim is opposed... to an aim which is imposed upon a process from without. The latter is fixed and rigid; not a stimulus to intelligence in the given situation....In education (externally imposed aims render) the work of both teacher and pupil mechanical and slavish (p. 110).

Interest and discipline are correlative aspects of activity having an aim (p. 137).

(Facts and information are not things to be reproduced on tests, but their proper correlate) is inferences, conjectured meanings...tentatives explanations: - ideas, in short. (Facts are what is there, what is given; they do not supply the answer.) Projection, invention, ingenuity come in for that purpose. The data arouse suggestions. ..But the suggestions run beyond what is. ...They forecast possible results, things to do. ... Inference is always an invasion of the unknown, a leap from the known (p. 158).

(Good teaching method is not isolated from subject matter, nor is it isolated from concrete situations of experience.) There can be no discovery of method without cases to be studied. (In the absence of these things) "methods" have to be authoritatively recommended to teachers, instead of being an intelligent expression of their own observations. Under such

circumstances, they have a mechanical uniformity, assumed to be alike for all minds (p. 168).

(Aims) are the means by which the direction of action is controlled. They are subordinate to the situation, therefore, not the situation to them (p. 175).

Method is a statement of the way the subject matter of an experience develops most effectively and fruitfully. ...The assumption that method is something separate is connected with the notion of the isolation of mind and self from the (objective world). It makes instruction and learning....mechanical (and constrained) (p. 179).

Experience is no longer a mere summarizing of what has been done in a more or less chance way in the past; it is deliberate control of what is done (to make our experience as fertile in meaning as is possible). When trying, or experimenting, ceases to be blinded by impulse or custom, when it is guided by an aim and conducted by measure and method, it becomes reasonable--rational....(This statement implies that the opposition of purely practical and intellectual studies is not intrinsic but dependent on the conditions within which they are carried out.) Practical activities may be intellectually narrow and trivial; they <u>will</u> be in so far as they are routine, carried on under the dictates of authority, and having in view <u>merely</u> some external result (p. 273). (Emphasis in original)

These excerpts and the work as a whole suggest the unity that Dewey constructs from diverse pieces. Learning, for example, takes place in a social environment that requires empathetic communication and the use of language to create shared meanings. This educational environment is not only social but rigorously intellectual. The teacher constructs and reconstructs the learning environment as experience unfolds based on his or her subjective intentions (aims), the data generated by experience, and a directive intelligence. Intelligence (mind) is thus placed within the teacher's ordinary experience and is not entrusted to principals or academics alone who are outside the "stream of experience" of a particular teacher and class, an experience stream that in some important ways always enjoys unique and important qualities.

Other implications inhere in Dewey's theory. His theory is holistic; pieces never dominate and distort the whole. Aims (or objectives), Dewey holds, are "subordinate to the situation... not the situation to them". This is an inversion of today's technocratic lore on teaching which places a piece of the whole, objectives and lesson plans, for example, in the superordinate position.

Dewey's theory contrasts sharply with the technocratic view because he has an explicit and considered epistemology that sees learning in a classroom as one mediated by a social environment that itself is a complex and unfolding "situation", what today we might call the ecology of the classroom. The critical element, the social environment in the classroom, is one constructed by intelligence. If the "big piece" is the environment, it logically follows that

objectives and lesson plans or time or instructional materials are means to redirect actions in relationship to the learning environment which includes these (and other) "pieces" but which is superordinate to them.

The relationship that Dewey constructs among objectives, and by logical implication other less primary elements of education such as lesson plans, and the primary mediating influence of a social environment that must be continuously redirected by intelligence as it unfolds, is a good example of the clarity and penetrating power of his philosophy. One cannot but wonder, for example, at the ocean of unrealized learning among our youth whose teachers (and their teachers) unthoughtfully define a "learning environment" as time-on-task without inquiring about the worth of the task, who do not see the energizing power of social interaction in a classroom that encourages purposeful activity and the "natural" use of language, who zealously pursue behavioral objectives, and who see facts as the raw material from which test scores are constructed rather than as the initiating point for "conjectured meanings (and) tentative explanations".

One final point should be made. Philosophy is free to examine questions of value and to assert ends for education. Philosophy is the one discipline that takes as its province the examination of values. Philosophy, unlike scientific research, has no reason to pretend to be value free. Questions of ends are beyond the range of science. Dewey is free to assert, then, that the primary aim of teaching is to develop thought. He does not go to science for support of this aim (although the empirical effects of acting on this claim

are proper grounds for scientific inquiry). Science may tell us what is but it cannot tell us what ought to be. To ask a nuclear scientist to give a scientific answer to the question "What social ends should nuclear power serve?" is to exceed the bounds of science.

The value Dewey attaches to the free exercise of intelligence is evident in the quotations cited. It is not too much to say that the value of intelligence permeates them: Intelligence is linked to aims, to knowledge, to feelings, to interest and discipline, and to the creation of teaching methods based "on cases to be studied", the particular conditions and events that arise in any teaching situation. Intelligence is also linked to democratic social values and to morals in the total work.

This brief account of Deweyan philosophy illustrates the disciplinary perspective of philosophy which tries to see phenomena comprehensively and holistically. This perspective is not one enjoyed by positivistic research on teacher effectiveness to which we will shortly turn.

Let us restate our purpose in discussing Deweyan philosophy and the research on teacher effectiveness. Our successful interventions in improving the intellectual quality of teaching and in altering to some extent the inhibiting organizational structures of schools rests on the fact that our work is guided by a rich theory that helps us to see schools and teaching in their organic wholeness--a wholeness that however much it may be neglected in most educational research is obvious an urgent the moment one engages in the complex work of making one school better. The rich data of this "evolving practical situation", as Dewey might say in his

abstract way, makes the intanglements and complex interactions of practical action clear to any observer who is open to the "data" and who is not intent on imposing a pre-conceived and partial "solution" on the practical and contingent situation. Yet practitioners turn almost automatically to partial and fragmentary research findings when they seek a knowledge source in which to root practical action. They ignore, in our opinion, the richer, complex and, yes, more difficult ideas in the more holistic and intellectual theories such as Dewey's that may be ultimately more practical however ambiguous and irrelevant they may appear to the managerial eye of most practitioners (or to the positivistic eye of many researchers whose epistemology reduces to isolated variables that can be easily quantified). We will point out the deficiencies in the research that most practitioners unfortunately accept as not only valid but useful. So long as practitioners turn to a partial and impaired knowledge base, the necessary work of making our schools more intellectual and sensitive cannot be furthered but only delayed. This is the practical cost of accepting a faulty view of knowledge.

A critical analysis of the process-product research paradigm will show how fragmentary and vacuous this kind of research can be and why we feel that its findings inhibit the development of teacher and student intelligence and diverts fundamental reform.

A CRITIQUE OF THE PROCESS-PRODUCT PARADIGM

Lee SHULMAN gives a fair and critical review of research programs in teaching in the Handbook of Research on Teaching.[37] He reviews the process-product research paradigm which he characterizes as the dominant paradigm in use over the past decade. He reviews other perspectives such as student mediation of the social context and of the content taught, ethnographic studies of the ecology of the classroom, and the thought processes of teachers as they make plans for teaching and as they teach. After discussing the strengths and weaknesses of the several paradigms, SHULMAN concludes that "... research on teaching (is) in a state of admirable vigor and promising progress." [38]

We reach a conclusion opposite to that of Shulman based on the criticisms he himself makes of the process-product research paradigm. SHULMAN makes six major criticisms of research on teaching which we summarize below.

I. The process-process paradigm has produced findings useful to policy makers but it ignores the mental processes of students and teachers. Ethnographic research, on the other hand, cannot generalize as traditional research tries to do but it serves a useful purpose in refining the debate.[39]

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37 Lee S. Shulman, "Paradigms and Research Programs in the Study of Teaching: A Contemporary Perspective" in Merlin C. Wittrock, ed., Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd ed., (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1986), 3-36

38 Ibid., p. 33

39 Ibid., pp. 30-31

2. Process-product research has been criticized, SHULMAN reports, for being too technological in orientation, and orientation that de-skills teaching.[40]

3. SHULMAN reports that "... little remarkable has emerged..." in the research on teacher cognition. One serious limitation of the research on teacher cognition is that this research has been dominated by the variables that process-product research has found to be effective.[41]

4. Berliner's research on Academic Learning Time fails to capture "the complexities of the classroom, with its myriad interactions" despite Berliner's criticism of process-product research for ignoring the same complexities. Gage in turn has criticized ALT's emphasis on engaged time with the comment that "time is an empty vessel;"[42] and last,

5. Research on classroom ecology has no fewer problems of substance and method than does research in other traditions. Despite criticisms that process-product research is superficial and ignores the complexities of learning and teaching, many ethnographers meticulously document such pieces of the whole as participation patterns and uses of language while ignoring the educationally central features such as content, student activities, and teaching.[43]

What do SHULMAN'S criticisms of process-product research mean? His criticism means that process-product research ignores

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40 Ibid., pp. 28-29

41 Ibid., pp. 24

42 Ibid, p. 15

43 Ibid., p. 21

the minds of teachers and students, that the dominant research paradigm on teaching ignores intelligence. Easy-to-quantify correlations between teacher behaviors and achievement test scores that measure low-level facts and skills are found, after 15 years of work, to be mindless!

Others have concluded that this paradigm emits an uncertain light. Garrison and Macmillian, to give one example, question the explanatory power of process-product research and cite Doyle who says that the theoretical grounds for selecting variables or interpreting the results are weak; they question also the possibility that satisfactory empirical inquiry can even be conducted with this paradigm and suggest that its slow progress and lack of empirically significant results might be explained "by its endemic conceptual problems."[44]

If the aim of teaching is to develop intelligence, to return to Dewey's theory for purposes of comparison with that of the process-product paradigm, and if the teacher's behavior is redirected by the consequences that flow from actions in an unfolding social situation to achieve aims that are meaningful because they reflect the teacher's ideas and values, and if method flows from subject matter and a study of concrete situations in which method is rooted, and if, further, a paradigm on teaching is advanced that ignores these things, do we not have necessary and sufficient grounds for its rejection? We believe that the answer is a firm "yes". A paradigm for research on teaching that is as conceptually empty as is the process-product paradigm and which, to make matters worse, is also

44 Garrison and Macmillan, op. cit., p. 272

dominant, forecloses for the present whatever vigor and promise might otherwise characterize the field of research on teaching.

We have tried to make a reasonable case for the conceptual richness and practical promise of Dewey's holistic theory against a positivistic and mechanical ontology that denies mind and values. Yet the weak theory and the feeble results that flow from a mechanistic research paradigm on teaching are what most practitioners turn to as a knowledge source. Practitioners must bear some responsibility for this choice because of their exaggerated concern for easy-to-understand rules for teaching and for quick, measurable results. And, too, the factory-like schools in which they work and whose organizational assumptions they rarely question, encourage them to be unthinking consumers of the vacuities produced by process-product research and its positivistic kin. But the academic community, too, has been negligent. Any competent researcher knows the severe limitations of this research. Yet this research is too often presented to practitioners with a false aura of scientific sanction with its scientific limitations and assumptions obscured or ignored. One does not see in these accounts the limitations briefly cited here as well as other limitations that could be mentioned. See for example Brandt's[45] interview with Berliner or Rosenshine's[46] statement on direct teaching. The result of not making the limitations of this research explicit in articles where the research is presented can be seen in the publication

45 Ron Brandt, "On Improving Teacher Effectiveness: A Conversation with David Berliner", Educational Leadership 40 (October 1982): 12-15

46 Rosenshine, op. cit., pp. 60-69

entitled "Effective Teaching: Observations from Research"[47] published by the American Association of School Administrators which summarizes much of this research. This publication presents many of the results of effective teaching research in an easy-to-read list format. The clear suggestion of this publication is that the results reported are scientific fact with the necessary qualifications omitted--thus confirming Eisner's[48] judgment that this is what many educators see as a proper use of research.

The positivistic mind-set of many practitioners and of many researchers in teaching make it very difficult for other voices to be heard. This is an unintended consequence but a real and limiting one. Approaches such as ours which are inductive and employ ideas and dialogue to empower teachers and to change practice sound effete and inefficient to practitioners who are continuously subjected to lean and direct prescriptions on how to not only "make" effective teachers but effective schools as well. When these slick packages are presented to practitioners who know too little history or philosophy to be cautiously aware that science is a way of thinking and not a guarantee, harm is done to the intellectual and emotional development of students and teachers. This is the tragic cost of a false positivism.

Principle Three: The staff development process is mediated and energized through a dialogue that is democratic.

47 "Effective Teaching", American Association of School Administrators, Alexandria, Va., 1986, 16 pp.

48 Eisner, "Can Educational Research Inform...," pp. 447-452

The dialogue process transforms inert "bookish" ideas, the participants' past experience and knowledge, including their practical historical knowledge of the school and school system, and their ideas and feelings, into a social energy that has great potential for educational renewal--fundamental changes in the processes and structure of schooling that cultivate the intelligence and sensitivities of people.

The dialogue, therefore, unifies and energizes the essential components required for educational renewal; the dialogue marshals the power that is commensurate with the complexity of the problem addressed. The dialogue also reflects our philosophical decision to embrace holism and to avoid dualisms such as theory and practice, feeling and idea.

The dialogue process provides a practical way to act on the too often ignored premise that teachers and administrators and schools and school systems always interact with their environment holistically and with great subtlety. Decades of failure in trying to improve learning and schools with piecemeal efforts such as mastery learning or with piecemeal research-based programs to base teaching on scientific findings, or with piecemeal efforts to control the "difficulty level" of basal readers and textbooks,[49] partially supports our premise.

The salient characteristics of the dialogue process are given below to clarify a medium of social interaction that defies full communication in words alone.

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49 Kenneth Cadenhead, "Reading Level: A Metaphor That Shapes Practice", Phi Delta Kappan 68 (February, 1987): 436-441.

ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS ON THE DIALOGUE PROCESS

The dialogue must be consistent with the three aims and with the three principles discussed earlier to be a dialogue as we use it. The following characteristics of the dialogue process highlight its essential qualities.

I. Spanning the hierarchy--The dialogue involves participants who must come from at least two levels in the school system hierarchy. In no case are people at the same level of the hierarchy talking only with each other: teachers to teachers or principals to principals.

In the case studies we discuss later, "spanning the hierarchy" means that the participants come from all of the hierarchical layers between the superintendent and teacher in one school system; in the second school system, the participants came from the system's comprehensive high school and span the levels between the principal and teacher. In other sites, not discussed here, participants were administrators from the superintendent to vice principal; another site involved two secondary schools and the participants came from the levels between the superintendent and teacher.

2. Fundamental problem focus--The dialogue begins with an initial problem focus that is stated in a way that is general and fundamental, and which does not prejudge either a specific problem or a solution. In the single secondary school mentioned above, the initial problem focus was stated this way: "How can we improve the intellectual quality of learning in this school?" Although "intellectual quality" specifies an area of concern, this area is so complex that the number of specific problems that could be defined

are almost endless. The important criterion is to avoid the premature and uninformed definition of a specific problem that assumes an answer; an example of a restrictive problem statement in this case would be to pose the problem in this way: "Which of three thinking skills packages should we adopt this year?" This unthoughtful problem focus implicitly contains "answers" to unstated questions that are debatable: Is thinking primarily "skills"? Will the use of a packaged program improve or limit the teacher's capacity to think? Is this reform by curricular quilt making -- hastily sewing one more patch on the educational quilt whose principle of coherence is unclear?

3. Ideas--The dialogue must include a body of solid ideas that both inform and criticize the ideas and values learned implicitly through years of practice.

Talk uninformed by serious reading, or talk that follows a prepackaged formulation, or talk limited only to the participants' experience, is rejected because such talk is unintelligent on its face. Schools cannot become intellectual through means that are themselves non-intellectual.

4. Time--The dialogue takes times and it cannot be rushed by managerial concerns for short-term "efficiency". Preliminary results seem to occur around six or twelve months based on the equivalent of five full staff development days in an academic year; more solid pay-off seems to occur around three to five years if making changes in the structure of schooling is the criterion.

5. Rigor with flexibility--The dialogue is both rigorous and flexible; it is both tight and open. Rigor comes from four major

sources: the educationally significant and complex nature of the initial problem focus; the expectation that something both practical and fundamental will be accomplished within the constraints of a known school situation; the readings; and the provision of adequate time reasonably to accomplish some things that are educationally difficult.

Flexibility comes from four major sources: the dialogue is democratic and open; the agenda can be made and remade across the sessions by the participants within the general aims and structure of the dialogue; the initial problem focus is more specifically and thoughtfully redefined over time as experience warrants; and no topic or concern is arbitrarily ruled out because its discussion may be unsettling to someone or some group or because it questions the value or purpose of the dialogue process itself.

6. The moderator--The dialogue requires a moderator who is in tune with the spirit of the process and who is knowledgeable about the content in the readings and educational practice. The writers served as moderators for each of the renewal efforts reported here.

The dialogue process itself becomes a model for a more democratic and empowering way of learning and teaching that is collegial and disciplined in spirit yet practical and intellectual in substance.

This list of the essential characteristics of the dialogue process may clarify the nature of the dialogue. It is important also to know some of the basic theoretical ideas that slowly influenced

what we came to believe the critical ends and means of "staff development" ought to be. We discuss these ideas next.

Dewey's ideas provide the basis for the short theoretical account that follows. We have adapted these ideas to suit our practical purposes to develop a dialogue process and to test its usefulness in field situations--actions very much in the pragmatic philosophic tradition of James and Dewey. "Theory" or ideas, in their view, was not something that existed only within the confines of the university. Theory was considered to be more lively, a part of this world, something to be tried out, effervescent, "uncork the theory bottle and see how well the party goes" was to be preferred to a somber quiescence.

Dialogue is a good way to learn. Communication through language is a gift unique to humans Yet communication in classrooms and in staff development programs it is often debased to mean only the passive reception of someone else's message, what Piaget scorns as the transmitter-receiver view of learning.

But the very ease by which we use language often leads us to a serious error in our teaching according to Dewey.

"The importance of language in gaining knowledge is doubtless the chief cause of the common notion that knowledge may be passed directly from one to another. It almost seems as if all we have to do to convey an idea into the mind of another is to convey a sound into his ear. Thus imparting knowledge gets assimilated to a purely physical process."[50]

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50 Dewey, op. cit., p. 14

The dialogue process recognizes the complexity of learning new knowledge in the Deweyan sense. To know in this sense means more than "to hear" and to repeat what was heard. Knowing something means that the new knowledge must be integrated with one's previous knowledge and that it must have meaning, that one is capable of relating the new knowledge to ends-to-be-achieved, to concrete action.

Learning something to this depth takes time for reflection and assimilation. If knowledge is to be used in concert with others, a condition that is implict in making a school better, the dialogue process increases the range of shared knowledge within the group, knowledge becomes a more common possession. The dialogue also modifies the inclination of participants to accept or reject what is talked about; an idea or a feeling that is expressed in the dialogue is capable of being made richer and more personally significant by enlarging the range of its perceived meanings by the intellectual and emotional interaction with others through the social medium of the group. The ideas and feelings that one chooses to express in the dialogue are now beyond the safer confines of private experience alone and are open to diverse reactions from others in a public forum that, in turn, may provide a stimulus for further reflection. In this way there is a more genuine sharing of interests with each other. The limiting isolation of teachers in the school has been breached to some extent.

Dewey speaks to the intellectual and social qualities of communication in the following passage.

"Any experience ... is capable of assuming an indefinite richness of significance by extending its range of perceived connections. Normal communication with others is the (best) way of effecting this development, for it links up the net results of the experience of the group and even the race with the immediate experience of an individual. By normal communication is meant that in which there is a...common interest so that one is eager to give and the other to take. It contrasts with telling... simply for the case of impressing (what is told) upon another...."[51]

Dewey anticipated the wisdom of later thinkers when he said that the fact that a group exists (one thinks of a teacher and a group of students or the faculty of a school) does not mean that desirable social relations exist. "A large number of social relationships in any social group are still (on) the machine-like plane", Dewey writes. "Individuals use one another so as to get desired results, without reference to the emotional and intellectual disposition and consent of those used". Such uses express technical superiority or power of position or command of fiscal or other resources, but they form no true social group. The giving of orders may effect results, but it does not "effect a sharing of purposes, a communication of interests."[52]

Dewey understood, too, the intellectual power that is generated when language is used to communicate seriously within a group. His ideas are worth pondering in this decade which has seen the fad of "thinking skills" rise on the weak foundation of a back-to-

51 Ibid., p. 217

52 Ibid., p. 5

basics movement and managerially inspired state accountability systems (the technologized silhouette of an idea that is implicit in the phrase "thinking skills" is made more visible when one compares it with Dewey's more profound and elegant phrase "the cultivation of intelligence").

To give or receive a communication, Dewey says, is to have a qualitatively enlarged or changed experience. To communicate something to another requires that one "has to assimilate, imaginatively, something of another's experience. All communication is like art."[53] This idea suggests the complex intellectual and emotional dimensions in honest talk. Can schools ever become truly intellectual so long as "talk" is routinized by syllabi and sluiced from the mind and feelings by a didacticism that distorts the medium and destroys the message?

It may be said, Dewey continues, "that any social arrangement that remains vitally social, or vitally shared, is educative to those who participate in it. Only when it becomes cast in a mold and runs in a routine way does it lose its educative power."[54]

It is for reasons such as these that the dialogue is the process that we use to effect renewal. The true and ignored resources in learning, whether they be used with adults or with children, come down to time, language, and the intellectual and emotional power generated by intelligent social interaction that rests on democratic values.

53 Ibid., p. 6

54 Ibid. p. 6

In the next section we will describe the outcomes and problems that arise when the dialogue process is used in schools.

PART II

TWO OUTCOME REPORTS AND AN ASSESSMENT

TWO OUTCOME REPORTS

The two outcome reports (based on case studies) that follow will give more of the flavor of the dialogue process when it is used to effect fundamental renewal in schools. The first report involves a total school district; the second, a comprehensive high school.

Outcome Report 1 - The Eastern Lancaster County School District

The educational renewal process in the Eastern Lancaster County School District (ELANCO) is beginning to yield results with regard to the development of the concept of empowerment, improved teacher and administrative practice, and the restructuring of the basic organization of the school.

Demographics: ELANCO is a rural district seven miles east of Lancaster, Pa. The district is 97 sq. miles in area, enrolls 2890 students, and employes a professional staff of 200, including 10 administrators. There are five elementary buildings and one junior-senior high school within the district. The district's operating budget is 12 million dollars. There are two major agri-related corporations, Ford New Holland and Weaver Chicken, and a variety of small businesses operating within the district. A large portion of the population is Mennonite who send their children to their own church-related schools.

Time Period: The staff-development process began in October of 1983. It is in its fourth year at the time of this writing, April, 1987. The entire teaching and administrative staff participated from the

beginning. The assistant superintendent had the responsibility for the design and implementation of the process, with the strong support of the superintendent and the board.

Data Collection Process: Data were collected on seven organizational variables identified by Peters and Waterman[55] : 1. Strategy; 2. Structure; 3. Style; 4. Skills; 5. Systems; 6. Shared Values; and, 7. Staff. Data presented in this case study will concentrate on the district's shared values, which is its philosophy; styles, which are the preferences of both teachers and administrators to their way of learning and responding to the environment; and, the system, the procedures of the organization to carry out its tasks.

Levels of the Hierarchy Spanned: All levels within the K-12 organization were involved: the school board; central administration; building principals, and teachers. The community is beginning to become involved.

The participation by the entire professional staff was required. This action could be viewed as being inconsistent with the research on staff development and the principles of a democratic process. The issue for us is not telling people what and how to teach, but to create an organizational structure to get people to think about the possibilities for professional growth. In our view it is not a question of voluntary versus mandatory programs, but rather of creating a structural change to allow democratic change to take place in whcih people may make choices for themselves after they have participated in the staff development program.

55 Peters and Waterman, op. cit., 1982

Major Outcomes: Three major outcomes have emerged from the dialogue process:

1. Teachers are more involved in decisions concerning their professional world. This means that all of the teachers within the school district have the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect teaching, supervision (instructional growth), and the school curriculum. The participation of teachers in decision making has increased the morale of the staff by making people "feel" part of the system and encouraged the development of a sense of trust between different levels of the organization. Increased teacher involvement in decisions affecting teaching and curriculum has effected positive changes in teacher-administrative relationships.
2. The staff has improved the teaching-learning environment through the staff development process.Teachers discuss different approaches to teaching with other teachers which has increased their openess to better practices. The staff's inquiry into their shared values and styles has enhanced the process.
3. The restructuring of the school system is indicated by the reorganization of the K-12 curriculum which combined subject areas and defined common learning concepts for all students;by reorganizing time within the teacher and student day; and, by changing the criteria by which we group students based upon development and learning.

Discussion Of The Results and Partial Presentation Of Supporting Data: The data have been collected for the past three years and consists of interviews, surveys, and video recordings of dialogue sessions. Because of space limitations we will present illustrative data that support the major outcomes. The pattern of the whole data set is consistent with the illustrative data presented here.

Changes in Teacher-Administrative Decision-Making

We found that decentralization improves teacher-administrative practice. Decentralization creates a healthy tension which we think of as the emotional reactions of people to the possibilities of change. This increase in tension creates a need for teachers and administrators to communicate. This renewed communication encourages changes in practice.

The shifting of the decision-making process from the district office, or the principal's office, to teacher-administrator committees at the building level, has provided some of the power to change practice. This is empowerment. Trust is a core element in successfully diffusing the decision-making power to teachers and principals. One teacher reflected the feelings of many teachers on the trust-empowerment connection when she said:

> There is a re-birth of people who feel optimistic about the profession. I feel better about what I do because I am not alone anymore. It has expanded our thinking about what we do and called into focus the meaning of professional. This process has created more open tension in the system as we explore new behavior and roles. The development of trust between teachers and principals will be the key to our success.

We find activities which enhance trust are those which move away from a hierarchical model of power. The following examples will illustrate this process.

The first example shows that supervision is not the exclusive province of administrators, but includes teachers as well. The district has suspended its normal supervisory practice in each school for two years[56] . During this period, the teachers and principals will chose one of several models of supervision. This procedure allows teachers and principals to develop building-level approaches to improving teaching by expanding the range of the teaching strategies (or styles) used. By removing the artificial impediments imposed by routine supervisory practice, we are better able to accomplish ends that regular supervisory practices failed to achieve. We cannot, in other words, develop trust and empowerment through wider choice of teaching strategies if the supervisory subsystem interposes itself between our aim of empowerment and the teacher's professional responsibilities to choose appropriate means.

A second example of changes in teacher-administrative practice can be seen in the high school. The scheduling process has become a shared decision-making process between the teachers and principals. The staff was upset that a change from a very workable seven-period day to that of a eight-period day was administratively decided during the summer. This was done because a major renovation of the building was scheduled to begin in the Fall of

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56 Non-tenured teachers are still subject to State regulations pertaining to evaluation and rating to become tenured. Also, if a teacher would violate the school code or school district policy the rating process would be invoked.

1987. In the eyes of many staff members this was an example that "empowerment was just words and it would be business as usual." The issue was confronted. A team of teachers and the principals spent several days, during the Fall of 1986, designing a schedule that would reflect the needs of students, teachers, and the principals. A seven-period schedule was developed to everyone's satisfaction and morale of the staff was increased.

A third example of teacher administrative change in practice is the involvement of elementary teachers in the budget process in one building. This gives the teachers a chance to influence budget allocations to reflect their instructional practice in such things as texts, library books, and supplies.

We find that the concept of enpowerment produces tension in the staff as they begin to look at behavioral changes related to the traditional role expectation between teachers and principals. We believe this tension is healthy and a correlate of empowerment. This can be seen in the following response from an interview with an elementary principal:

> It has created a tension in myself as I explore methods to get the staff to work together. This tension is not just mine but felt in the staff. The process [supervision] is more complex than the once a year "look-in." What I am finding, because of the day-to-day routines, people are not farsighted as it relates to changing their behavior related to this choice of supervisory process. Don't get me wrong, this is what has been needed for a long time, but I am groping for ways to implement. It is forcing me to look at what changes I need to make in my behavior.

A lessening of top-down decisions decreased, communications between administrators and teachers increased. The following teacher responses from a 1987 survey support this:

> I feel teachers are considered more valuable by this district than in the past. I believe my problems are listened to, often consulted in matters of curriculum, and basically any structural/organization changes which affect me. [Jr. High]
>
> The lines of communications have been opened between staff and administration. There seems to be a "partnership" in this school, not the idea of boss-worker. We've been allowed to have input in decisions at our level [elementary] which is perceived by most as good.
>
> What I see is a strange paradox - administrators are more available and less available. I have more discourse with them, access to the thought processes permeating the entire system or the high school, a hand in the decision-making process - as long as its a scheduled, prearranged meeting. On the other, momentary, even emergency situations go begging, primarily because administrators are meeting with everyone else under the sun, and secondarily, because my building principals are new and have not formulated a working plan nor philosophy for their leadership role. However, there remains more positive (75%) than negative (25%) in this area [Secondary].

As new patterns develop, empowerment demands new thinking about school-based management, a topic not taught in most administration courses. As new practices between teachers and administrators develop, we find that there must be more thought and talk among administrators about management philosophy. The issue arises because the principal has to be both an instructional leader

and a manager. The question of leadership and the culture of the organization[57] are worthy of inquiry.

The ELANCO dialogue began with the use of Peters and Waterman's eight attributes of excellent organizations (which the school board adopted in 1984). For example, one attribute states that we should encourage our staff to take practical risks in their work environment and support good tries. Another states that the school should have a well defined direction, but allow for individual differences to exist. In looking at the two attributes, our principals must address the question, "What changes in my present management behavior must I make to achieve both congruence and diversity in my school? At what point does the see-saw balance?"

As decision-making moves from the central office to teachers and principals, the principals at both the secondary and elementary levels are beginning to "feel left out" and "not knowing what our roles as principals are becoming." Teachers have fewer problems with the "new freedom" than do principals. This point was revealed through interviews with teachers and principals. Teachers were saying that people would consciously circumvent principals and talk to district administrators because "they felt there was more understanding at that level." Principals saw the problem as the district office "doing away with middle management" and "not trusting their decisions."

57 Terrence E. Deal and Allan A. Kennedy, Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1982).

Changes In Teachers' Ideas and Attitudes About Teaching

The entire staff took a series of instruments to profile their styles of learning and values about education.[58] We wanted to sensitize people within our schools to the similarities and differences in their attitudes about learning, and to get them thinking about teaching. The differences are an expression of the range of styles that are present among the staff . We are finding that as the staff understands the range of styles and values, this information becomes a catalyst for them to achieve the development of a coherent educational theory.

To acheive this understanding, a profile of attitudes about teaching and how this is reflected in teaching behavior was developed. In 1984, teachers were given a district developed instrument called the "Teacher Behavior Inventory" (TBI), which was adapted from the "Myers-Briggs Type Indicator". The Myers-Briggs is based on Carl Jung's theory of psychological types which states that there are four basic mental processes called sensing (S), intuition (N), thinking (T), and feeling (F). The processes operate through perception (S)(N), defined as the way a person becomes aware of the environment, and judgement (T)(F) which is the way one makes decisions about the perception.

As teachers took the "Myers-Briggs Type Indicator", the question of how one should approach the task was raised: "Should I respond in my role as teacher, or respond with no particular reference to any role"? The TBI was developed to allow teachers to

58 Instruments used were Myers-Briggs, Kolb Learning Styles Indicator, Gregorc Transaction Ability Inventory, Schultz's VAL-ED, and a district developed Teacher Behavior Inventory.

focus on the teaching process as it related to their style. The theoretical constructs for the TBI are based on the works of Myers and McCaulley[59] , and Lawrence[60] . This instrument is experimental and its reliability and validity are being established. We will use the data on 30 junior high 7th and 8th grade teachers as an illustration of teacher attitudes about teaching.

Table 1. A Profile of the Way Junior High Teachers Think About Teaching.

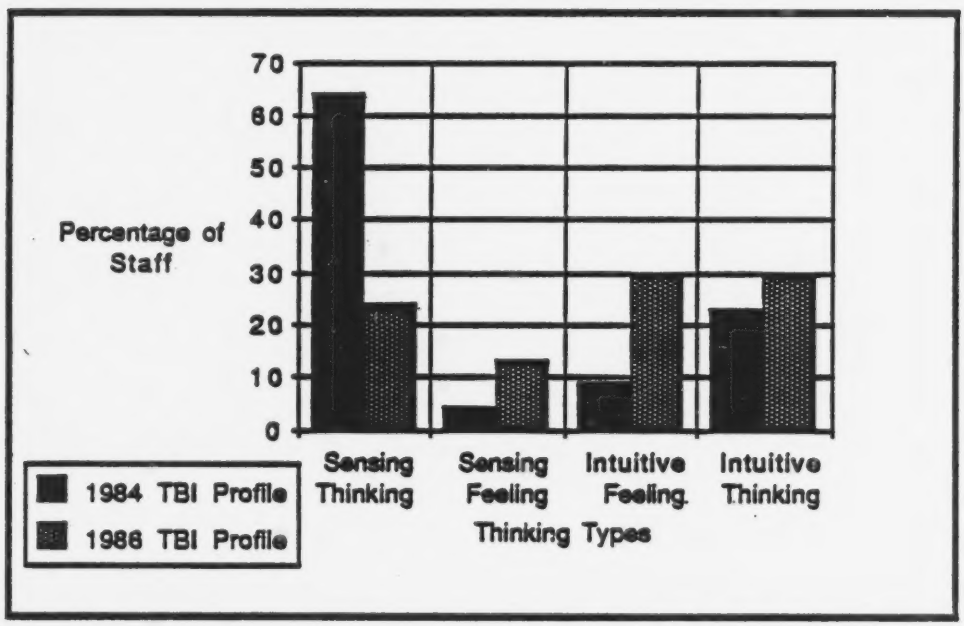

Table 1 shows four types of thinking related to teaching which is based on the Myers-Briggs definitions. The Sensing-Thinking person is fact oriented and tends to be practical and matter-of-fact when working. The person relies on the senses (S) to

59 Isable Briggs Myers and Mary H. McCaulley, Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1985).

60 Gordon Lawrence, People Types & Tiger Stripes: A Practical Guide to Learning Styles, 2nd ed. (Gainesville, Fl: Center for Applications of Psychological Type, Inc., 1983).

gather data and the logical process of reasoning (T) to make decisions. The Sensing-Feeling person relies on the senses (S) to gather information. They are interested in facts about people rather than things. They trust their feelings (F) in making decisions. The Intuitive-Feeling person focuses on possibilities (N) and not on concrete situations. They are people-oriented (F) and are more interested in motivating people to reach their highest levels. The Intuitive-Thinking person works with possibilities (N) and approaches them with impersonal analysis and logic (T). They do not trust feelings as a decision making process.

The 1984 profile shows that the junior high staff is predominantly Sensing-Thinking in their approach to teaching. This means junior high staff perceives itself as information givers and instructional managers; teaching emphasizes basic skills and the acquisition of content; individual competition among students is valued as a means to acheive purposeful work; convergent thinking tasks are used with an emphasis upon practice and drill; it is a teacher centered environment; and, evaluation of progress is based on objective tests and demonstration of specific skills.

These values about teaching were used as the focus of the dialogue in 1984. The TBI was given again in1986 to determine if the dialogue on teaching generated any change in teacher attitudes.

This profile shows a significant decrease in Sensing-Thinking (65% to 23%) to a significant increase in Intuitive-Feeling (8% to 30%). This reflects a change in staff perceptions to more of inquirers and facilitators; teaching emphasizes concept development and creative thinking; inquiry and independence with flexibility and

imagination are fostered; inductive reasoning, problem-solving and divergent thinking are valued; and, evaluation of student progress is based on written reports, essays, demonstration of thinking, and observation.

In follow-up interviews with junior high teachers, we found that this shift in thinking came about because of the social interaction of staff, particularly across grade levels, and the ideas introduced through the readings. The teachers believed that the discussions between secondary and elementary teachers caused them to re-evaluate their ideas and values about teaching and the quality of the classroom environment. It is important to remember that this is a thinking shift about teaching and does not necessarily represent a change in teaching behavior at this point in the districts renewal effort.

As the range of attitudes concerning teaching were documented, district activities were developed to begin to look at the relationship between the attitudes and teaching practice. The activities, which all the teachers and administrators participated in during the last three years, concentrated on readings that expounded a holistic-intellectual of view teaching such as those by Goodlad[61] , Dewey[62] , Piaget[63] , Sizer[64] , and Gibboney[65] . These readings, along with the styles data, served as the basics for district training in thinking about and expanding one's teaching strategies and

61 Goodlad, op. cit., 1984

62 Dewey, op. cit.,1966

63 Piaget,op. cit, 1970

64 Sizer, op. cit., 1984

65 Richard A. Gibboney, Toward: Intellectual Excellence: Some Things to Look for in Classrooms and Schools (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1980)

curriculum development. Training in Bruce Joyce's[66] teaching models became the focus of the workshops. The Joyce workshops had four major elements which we will be discussed below. The four elements are as follows:

1. Learning teams of 10 elementary and 10 secondary teachers.
2. Three-day workshops, during the school year, to explore teaching strategies.
3. Development of "building coaching" teams.
4. Follow-up one-day teaching model workshops.

The learning teams were made up of elementary teachers from each building, secondary teachers, and a building administrator. This structure opened up the teaching world's of the elementary and secondary teachers. Teachers are beginning to see that the teaching process is not related only to content or grade level but that it has general characteristics. This is a critical attitude for instructional growth because it will encourage teachers at all levels in our system to communicate professionally; i.e., if secondary teachers understand the development of concepts in early elementary children it will expand their understanding of the learning process.

All teachers participated in a three-day exploratory workshop of the Joyce models. These workshops began in the Fall of 1984 and concluded in the Spring of 1986. Learning teams based on teacher choice of models; i.e., concept attainment, memory development, synectics, or group investigation were developed. In the Fall of

66 Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil, Models of Teaching, 3rd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1986)

1986, the staff began one-day "Re-Joyce" workshops to expand different instructional models. These workshops became the basis for building level coaching and professional development work.

The success of the workshops can be seen through the following teacher comments on a 1987 survey:

> I've tried some new things in my classes. We've worked on concept attainment. Plans are underway to work with others in the junior high on coaching. My next attempt will be to work with another teacher who has gone through the inquiry process in a peer coaching arrangement. People, even though sometimes outspoken against the whole process, have been willing to attempt new things. People are looking at what they're doing and in alot of cases appear to be excited about teaching. Some still try to act like they're resisting, but are really doing new things. [Junior High]

> Before the introduction of the teaching models, I basically taught with one type of presentation. I was a feeling oriented teacher, and that's how information was dispensed. I now have an understanding that children all will not actively respond to my preferred style of teaching. This has helped me to vary my teaching styles. [Elementary]

> From an individual standpoint, my teaching practice has not changed that much. However, I have thought more about different styles and how they might work if class time were greater. It also has reminded me there are other ways of teaching content than just the way I teach it. [Senior High]

Restructuring the Organization

The works of Sizer[67] , Boyer[68] , Goodlad[69] , and demographers Naisbitt[70] , and Hodgkinson[71] served as the catalyst for the staff to discuss the organization of the schools. We found this process was important because it allows the staff to expand the range of possible images of what schooling might look like. Psychologically this process encouraged the development of a sense of control over one's environment, a prerequisite for professional behavior.

In the beginning of the renewal process only a few staff members were active in thinking about change and the school. This condition existed because the system had no district-wide direction. As the district began to shift its emphasis towards a more active, participative environment, based on ideas, more teachers became involved. This involvement is documented by the number of study groups that developed over the past two years.

For example, a study group composed of elementary and secondary teachers and principals, is developing a fesibility study for the implementation of a

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67 Sizer, op. cit., 1984

68 Ernest L. Boyer, High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America (New York: Harper & Row, 1983

69 Goodlad, op. cit.,1984

70 John Naisbitt and Patricia Aburdene, Re-inventing the Corporation (New York: Warner Books, Inc., 1985

71 Harold L. Hodgkinson, All One System: Demographics of Education-Kindergarten Through Graduate School (Washington: Institude for Educational Leadership, Inc., 1985

K-3 curriculum based on the principles of child development found in the works of Piaget and Gesell. Through the readings and discussions, the committee is defining what is meant by a developmental curriculum, developmental teaching, and what changes in the organization will be required if a K-3 non-graded program develops. The committee developed a three-year timeline for the implementation of the K-3 curriculum plan.

As more staff participate, we find that the organization of the school day is the variable which must be changed if this participation is to become part of the schools' culture. A district norm has developed that states that growth does not happen in one or two years. The norm developed from the realization that the ideas we are exploring need five to ten years to develop. This timeline is related to a critical factor in the "transfer stage" between ideas and values and practice. For example, if the concepts of teaching practice developed in the Joyce workshops and changes in attitudes created by the readings are to become a reality in practice, the way we structure and schedule our curriculum needs to be rethought. This rethinking lead us to consider alternatives to the way we had formerly structured the school day.

For the last three years the district has been exploring ideas about restructuring the organization. Restructuring means rethinking the ways that the schools are managed daily. The relationships between people within the schools and the quality of the work environment are at the center of this inquiry. We are finding that it is important to remind people that "business as usual" will be the order of the day and that discrepancy between ideas and action will

be prevalent. But as concepts become concrete, time and structural changes will occur.

During the 1986-87 school year, a study group was formed to redesign the school day. The group is composed of board members, teachers, administrators, citizens, and students. It worked with the ideas generated from our activities and national reports about the need to restructure our schools.

The committee developed a recommendation for the Board to consider increasing the amount of professional time in a teachers' day. The elementary staff will use a traditional approach of an early dismissal once a week for building activities related to professional development. The secondary staff will be freed from cafeteria duty and some study hall duties by hiring a group of paraprofessionals to carry out these duties. It is a small step in beginning to solve a complex issue, but the staff feels that it is a step in an appropriate direction.

Conclusion: The renewal process at ELANCO has generated significant change in the district with respect to the relationship between teachers and administrators through decentralizing power, teachers becoming aware of their attitudes about learning and how they effect teaching practice, and the changes made the way we manage the organization and structure the work environment. Several issues are being identified as critical if this democratic and fundamental renewal process is to continue.

First, as teachers and administrators explore new role relationships, a person(s) must have the responsibility within the district to change the tension that develops when new roles are

explored. In ELANCO this job function became the major responsibility of the Assistant Superintendent. The position gives a focal point in the organization for people to engage issues related to change. Why this needs to be addressed by a school can be seen on the national level with the attempt to implement role change in Rochester, New York. Another example is a grievance, concerning infringement of traditional administrative roles by teachers, filed by a national administrative union against a national teachers union with the A.F.L.-C.I.O. with which both are affiliated[72] . These actions occur because schools systems do not make the process of organizational renewal an active part of their schools. The need to rethink this action is well documented by Goodlad[73] and Joyce, Hersh and McKibbin[74] .

Second, time for the staff to reflect and to dialogue with others must be built into the system. Fullan[75] has noted that for change to take place, in one's belief, teaching style, the materials used, the change process must be developed in the context of professional socialization. Durning the past four years this socialization process has been an integral part of the ELANCO process. But, as the staff requests more time for professional dialogue, there is a growing concern about the lack of increased staff interaction on a regular basis. This concern is based on past

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72 "Administrators' Union Attempts to Halt Shift of Managerial Responsibilities to Teachers" Education Week, March 25, 1987, pp. 1, 13-14

73 Goodlad, op. cit., pp 272-279, 1984

74 Bruce R. Joyce, Richard H. Hersh and Michael McKibbin, The Structure of School Improvement (New York: Longman Inc., 1983): 149-150

75 Michael Fullan, The Meaning of Educational Change (New York: Teacher College Press, 1982): p. 121

practice. Since most schools did not place a high priority on staff interaction, teachers and administrators have not developed the behaviors and attitudes associated with collegial relationships. The success of the ELANCO renewal effort will be related, in part, to the amount of time that can be given for the staff to interact with each other. Again, Fullan[76] has made the point that all the research about change(renewal) and its effect on staff must become just as much a regular part of thier jobs as is the emphasis on routine.

The third critical issue, which the writers consider the most important, is to restructure the whole school system. The staff has generated ideas of what the structure of the schools should be--and needs to be. These ideas have motivated the staff to develop suggestions for changes in both curriculum organization and the structure of a teachers' day. But as we begin the fifth year of our renewal effort, the complexities of organizational change are becoming apparent.

Will the community, for instance, be willing to pay for a 210 day teacher contract (the present contract is 185 days) to provide the time for teachers to keep making their intellectual reinvestments in nontrivial renewal efforts? Or might other "solutions" emerge from the dialogue? The fact that we have a four-year track record of accomplishment that shows what the board and staff mean by "quality", will help. The community will at least have some ideas and concrete actions to look at. Time will tell. Some risk and no guarantees are always handmaidens to educational renewal that is fundamental and not cosmetic.

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76 Ibid., p. 129

Outcome Report 2 - William Tennent High School, Warminister, Pa.

The outcomes of the dialogue process in the William Tennent high school are judged to be a success with respect to the aims of empowerment and improved teacher and administrator practice; modest but inadequate changes were also made in some of the structural elements of the school. These outcomes will be discussed later.

Background information for the renewal effort at Tennent high school is given below.

Demographics: Tennent high school is a comprehensive high school enrolling 2000 students, grades 9 to 12. Its staff includes 105 teachers, a principal, and three vice principals. The average years of teaching experience for the faculty is about 17 years. Tennent high school serves a middle to lower middle class community in the Philadelphia metropolitan area.

Time Period: The staff development program began in January of 1983 and is continuing in modified form.

Two groups of teachers and administrators participated in two successive time periods: Group 1 - consisted of 20 teachers, the principal and one vice principal. Group 1 met from January 1983 to June 1984; Group 2 - consisted of 17 teachers, the principal, and the same vice principal; Group 2 met from September 1984 to June 1985.

From September 1985 on Groups 1 and 2 met periodically after school as combined groups. All participation was voluntary. The principal served as moderator.

Levels of Hierarchy Spanned: The levels of the hierarchy spanned included the principal, vice principal, department chairs, and teachers. Teaching fields represented included most of the fine and practical arts and the academic subjects. Two strong union teachers were in the group.

Research Design: The research design uses a case study methodology supplemented with a comparison group of 20 teachers from Tennent high school. Comparisons were made between Group I teachers and the comparison group on pre-and post-observations in two outcome dimensions: I) ideas and values that inform teaching, and 2) three morale-related dimensions--the perceived likelihood that changes could be made in the school, the perception of the principal as an educational leader, and the perceived value of staff development to teachers.

Major Outcomes: The major outcomes are stated below.[77]

I. The morale of the dialogue group continued to increase over time; the morale of the dialogue group was much higher than that of the comparison group as determined by both qualitative and quantitative indices. Morale is defined here to mean such things as more positive perception of the principal as an educational leader, a more positive perception of the value of staff development, and more optimistic estimates than the comparison group on what changes might be possible in the high school. The dialogue group also experienced an increase in job satisfaction and in the appreciation of the self and colleagues which the teachers attributed to the interaction with peers encouraged by the dialogue process.

The principal developed a more positive perception of the teachers based on the more professional attitudes that slowly emerged as the dialogue unfolded; he also felt that the readings and the dialogue helped to give him a better grasp of issues to be dealt with, to see the larger picture, "to get hold of things." (He feels, too, that the daily grind of being a principal--the paper and the crises--chip away at the "up" feeling. As he puts it, "Most of the time I run with the engine at high speed with the anchor out.")

77 The data reported were collected and analyzed by Mrs. Shelly Salaman as part of her doctoral dissertation at the University of Pennsylvania which is now being written. Mrs. Salaman is a teacher at Tennent high school and participated in Group I

2. The teachers in the dialogue group made educationally significant changes in the ideas and values that inform practice in contrast to the teachers in the comparison group who remained static in this important dimension of teaching. The changes in the way the teachers "thought" about teaching valued a more intellectual and active-learning process for students.

Changes in the theoretical orientation of teachers are based on data sources such as responses to inventory questions, interviews, and journal notes of the dialogue itself.

3. The practices of teachers in the dialogue group reflected the theoretical orientation described above based on classroom observations of their teaching by the researcher as well as by the teachers' responses in interviews and self-report instruments.

The changed teaching practices generally reflect activities that encourage more active student response and a greater teacher concern with ideas through more small group work, more student talk, and less concern with superficial content coverage.

4. There were four changes in organizational structure over four years. These changes occurred at both the school and district levels.

School Level Changes in Structure

a. The faculty of the school took primary responsibility for making policy on discipline and for working out an operational philosophy on learning and teaching in 1985 and 1986. Some of the teachers and the principal believe that these events mark the beginning of significant teacher involvement in school policy.

b. Three additional days for staff development were given to high school teachers by the central office for the first time in 1984.

District Level Changes in Structure

c. The superintendent began a voluntary dialogue-based staff development program for district administrators in 1986-87. Nineteen of 26 administrators participated including all of the principals in the district. The impetus for this change came from the principal of Tennent high school. The superintendent saw this effort as an extension of the work in the high school and as an opportunity to create a more positive district-wide environment for change that included giving principals and teachers more autonomy in educational and fiscal matters at the school level.

d. The district policy on the grade designations for subjects in the fine and practical arts was changed to letter grades of A through F to make grade symbols in the "minor subjects" the same as those used in the academic subjects. This change was perceived by the teachers of subjects such as art or electronics as saying that the potential educational value of these studies was comparable to that of history or physics. This policy change was led by the principal and teachers in the high school. The primary argument advanced to the school board in favor of this change was based on some of the readings in the dialogue and hinged on Dewey's ideas that no proper area of knowledge is <u>inherently</u> intellectual or nonintellectual; the intellectual worth of any body of knowledge depends on the <u>quality</u> of the <u>processes</u> whereby that subject is learned. Two years were required to effect this change.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND PRESENTATION OF SUPPORTING DATA

The dialogue process resulted in educationally significant outcomes in morale, in the knowledge and values that inform teaching, in changed teaching and administrative practices, and in modest changes in some of the organizational structures in the school and school district that impede renewal in the high school. We will present some of the data that document these changes. Space precludes either a full discussion or data presentation. All of the data sources used in the case study, whether these sources be inventory responses or classroom observations or interview data or audio tapes of the dialogue sessions, support the outcomes stated. There are no contradictions in the pattern of the data that raise doubts about the validity of the outcomes that we claim.

Changes in Morale and Feelings

The short verbatim transcript that follows shows how feelings enter the dialogue. The segment of dialogue quoted below also shows how ideas begin to enter the consciousness of the participants along with feelings in nonthreatening ways. The segment quoted does not in itself document any of the changes in feelings that occurred, but it suggests some of the feeling tone of the dialogue that is the basis for the changes in feelings and morale that are emergent qualities within the dialogue process.

The readings for this dialogue session dealt with the social efficiency ideology in curriculum in which people other than the

teacher plan the curriculum and the way it is to be taught. Programmed instruction and the Chicago mastery learning program in reading are examples of social efficiency curricula. The group had also read an article by John Goodlad on his study of schooling that was published in March 1982 in the Phi Delta Kappan. We begin the dialogue excerpt with Teacher C.

> Teacher C: I'm upset with Goodlad. He scares me because he attracted me as a teacher with his initial statements and then he zapped me in the gut. Let me read this part (Teacher C reads a section of the article that says that schools are emotionally flat and nonintellectual).
>
> Teacher G: Does he blame all teachers?
>
> Principal: He blames teacher education institutions. He says teachers teach as they were taught.
>
> Teacher A: It is definitely the fault of (teacher) education institutions (he reads the quote).
>
> Teacher C: (Very heatedly) It's not true! Teachers do not teach as they were taught! Do our administrators know what they want us to teach? How do our evaluators look at us? Are the best people evaluating us?
>
> Teacher K: My supervisor wouldn't know a good lesson from a bad one if she tripped over it!
>
> Teacher F: I'd like to get back to what Goodlad says and (Teacher C's) question. What are the right models? What is our school like? What should it be like?
>
> Principal (with feeling): I read the material with a great deal of emotion. I see myself in this. I was trained this way--as a teacher and as a principal--in the social efficiency mode. That's why we are all here. And I'm not here as a bystander. There is much more for me to get out of this than maybe you.

> Teacher C: I'd like to see what we can get out of it too. Maybe we should get more.
>
> (Excerpt from the October 31, 1983, audio tape of session)

This segment reflects the feeling tone that is typical of the dialogue. The segment is unique only in that short segments of the dialogue do not usually cohere in print as well as does this one because of the meandering quality of discourse in groups when people are trying to make sense of what they feel, of what others say, or of something that has been read and which might be disturbing.

This excerpt shows that it is acceptable to express one's feelings. This is true for both teachers and administrators. Teacher K feels free to criticize a supervisor who is part of the "administrative team". The principal doesn't react to this criticism. The principal, instead, explicitly identifies himself as a learner with the teachers; the equality here is rooted in the attitude that all participants are learners. The readings, too, provide a relatively safe "outside" emotional focus: It is safer to get angry at Goodlad than it is to get angry at a colleague (although this sometimes occurs in later stages of the dialogue). And, finally, this excerpt shows that the readings introduce ideas ("teachers teach as they were taught") that provide another kind of "outside" focus but which also elicit emotional responses. The idea-feeling connection is expected on the basis of Deweyan theory that holds that learning is always accompanied by an underlay of feeling.

Questionnaire data reveal an interesting and strong increase in the dialogue group's optimism that changes could be made in the school. Both the dialogue and comparison groups were asked to rate the chances for making successful changes in the school, however each respondent might define "success". Responses were indicated on a 1 to 10 scale with 1 being the lowest estimate of success. The dialogue group's mean score in March 1983 during the pilot phase was 4.2; in September 1983, 6.9; and in June 1984, 7.8. The comparison group scores were 5.7 in September and 5.4 in June 1984.

This feeling among teachers that one's efforts can lead to success implies a sense of being able to control future events, it implies a sense of empowerment. The strong and increasing feeling in the dialogue group suggests that something positive was developing over the 15 months in which these observations were made. The comparison group's estimate of making changes in the school declined slightly in the 1983-84 academic year.

Teachers in the dialogue and control groups were asked to rate the principal as both an educational leader and as a manager on a 1 to 10 scale in September 1983 and June 1984. The pre-and post-test means for these two questions are summarized below.

Table 2. Changes in the Perception of the Dialogue and Comparison Groups on the Principal as Leader and as Manager--1983-1984

	Principal as Educational Leader		Principal As Manager	
	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Dialogue Group	6.2	8.8	6.9	7.2
Comparison Group	5.4	5.5	7.1	6.4

The fact that the teachers in the dialogue group made a substantial increase in their perception of the principal as an educational leader concomitantly with increases in their morale and optimism that successful changes might occur in the school, reasonably support the inference that their sense of empowerment was increasing and, further, that their increasing empowerment was not at the expense of the principal's role as an educational leader. The "power pie" was made larger in effect and there was less need to defend turf or to fight over a smaller pie in which the teachers' gain in power was paid for by a diminished leadership role for the principal. (The important and too often neglected element of trust was increasing as the dialogue progressed. Although we do not discuss trust in this summary account, increases in trust between teachers and administrators has been a constant outcome across the four sites in which the dialogue process has been used.)

All of the interview data as well as the teachers' written responses support the conclusion that the teachers perceived the

experience as stimulating and energizing. The following responses, written by two teachers, are typical of the qualitative data as a whole.

> Work in the (dialogue) group...has made me feel that teaching and learning at Tennent are alive and well. It is an invigorating experience.
>
> Never before in the course of my eighteen-year career at Tennent have I had such a challenging, stimulating opportunity... the (dialogue) provided a ripe intellectual atmosphere.... Together we found a renewed vitality for our... profession and place of employment.

Perhaps the best single indicator that teachers' feelings changed, that teachers began to see themselves differently, is that they have continued to meet with the principal "on their own" in the two and one-half years since the dialogue officially ended in June 1984. The money is gone, the outside moderator is gone, but there seems to be a personal and professional need that "getting together" to talk satisfies.

The fact that the dialogue group continued to meet "on its own" confirms the June 1984 questionnaire data that showed a statistically significant gain in the dialogue group's perception of the value of staff development programs; the comparison group's pre-and post-responses indicated no change in their perception of the value of staff development programs.

Changes in Ideas and Values that Inform Teaching

The most direct measure of changes in the dialogue and comparison groups in the ideas and values that inform teaching are given from the responses to an inventory entitled "Educational North". To write of "ideas and values" as if they were a separate entity from the changes in feelings discussed earlier is an artificial separation of related elements that is done only for the purpose of highlighting this important dimension (and these two categories, in turn, influence and are subsumed under the larger category of practice to be discussed later).

"Educational North" was developed by one of the writers. The inventory consists of 23 statements. The possible responses range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Correct responses are given a numerical weight of 5, the response "undecided" would be given a 3 and an incorrect response would be given a value of l. Statement l5 of the inventory, for example, is: "Time-on-task is an important educational concept". The correct response is "strongly disagree" (because Deweyen theory would demand that a more fundamental question be asked: What is the intellectual value of the task on which one is to spend time?).

Other statements in the inventory dealt with ideas such as the relationship of emotions to thinking, whether or not sequencing is basic to cognitive learning, the flexible quality of objectives in an activity, and the relationship of means to the quality of educational ends that are achieved. The inventory was given in September l983 and June l984.

Table 3. Changes in the Dialogue and Comparison Groups on Ideas and Values that Inform Teaching --1983-1984.

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Dialogue Group	73.5	81*
Comparison Group	69.1	68.7

* The post-test gain score is significant at the .01 level; t=2.459
A mid-point score on this inventory is 69
The reliability of the inventory is .88 based on the coefficient alpha formula

The educational significance of the two group's scores on the "Educational North" inventory is that the veteran high school teachers in the dialogue group can learn new theoretical ideas that should help them to critically examine their teaching by criteria that encourage more intellectual and socially interactive teaching. This paper-and-pencil finding appears to be valid because the observed changes in teaching practices (to be discussed later) within the dialogue group are consistent with the ideas and values assessed by the Deweyan-based inventory. (The higher pre-test score for the dialogue group reflects their exposure during the pilot phase, spring semester, 1983.)

The teachers in the comparison group, however, who experienced the regular inservice program and who were judged by the principal and the participant researcher to be comparable to the dialogue group in initial teaching ability and in perceived status as judged by their peers, made no changes in the ideas and values that

might help them to become more critical and reflective about learning and teaching (as viewed from the perspective of Deweyan theory).

The qualitative data suggest how these results in learning more about the ideas and values that inform and undergird teaching were achieved. A discussion of the dialogue group was audio taped in January 1984. In this session the group discussed such things as ways to invigorate lessons and to deal with discipline, they attempted to define important school-wide problems, they shared ideas on teaching, and they talked about the dialogue process itself. Some of the teachers' comments that relate to the subtle process of thinking about teaching in new ways and with the feelings that intertwine with this cognitive process are stated below.

1. We like being able to talk about frustrations in an intelligent way.
2. We like the free and open quality of the sessions.
3. Hope is engendered--the opportunity to think about some constructive answers is something we've needed for a long time.
4. The process gives you time to think (which) is particularly appreciated after midterms and grades.
5. We like tying the readings to practical applications in the classroom and want to do more of it.

The writers believe that the opportunity within the dialogue group to talk about frustrations, to reflect on teaching, and to tie the theory to classroom problems are essential precursors to the changes in teaching practices that will be discussed next.

Changes in Teacher Practices

Data from diverse sources such as teacher interviews, spontaneous comments by teachers on things that they were doing in their classes made in the course of the dialogue, pre-and post-essays on the typical kinds of learning activities that the teachers used in their teaching, and classroom observations by the onsite researcher were used to assess changes in teaching practices.

The changes in teacher practices could be summarized as changes in the students' learning activities that encouraged more student talk and discussion, encouraged student initiative in choosing the foci of study within a teacher-set framework such as writing discussion questions for small group work or writing possible test questions for the teacher's review, and peer teaching. Teachers taught less content and taught in more depth through the activities noted above; these activities had the effect of giving more time and importance to the ideas in the content. Activities such as these should result in more intellectual and emotionally satisfying learning according to Deweyan theory.

We can only report illustrative data here because of space limitations. We cannot report, for instance, complex accounts of a single teacher working with a new approach over six months or more which requires a description of the context, a chronology, and, in

some cases, the development of a "plot" and a cast of characters not to mention samples of students' work and planning documents.

Some illustrative examples from interviews with teachers in the dialogue group that were completed in May 1984 suggest the ideas and feeling tone of all of the teachers in the group.

A science teacher, judged by her peers to be one of the best teachers in the school, made the comment below.

> My teaching methods have changed. Lecture was a major part of my instructional activities. Now lecturing occurs to introduce a topic and to summarize the topic. The activities in between involve group work. Reading assignments are given for homework. In class, questions are presented to small groups involving their reading. After a period of time, the entire class is called together for a large group discussion of issues. Many ideas emerge from the individual groups. Students develop a feeling of self-worth, each can contribute, the material is covered three times. My teaching style has changed from teacher-centered to student-oriented. Why has this occurred? I have been exposed to many ideas, some have been discarded, but many have been integrated and adapted for my personality and for my subject matter. I enjoy new ideas and change.

A teacher of foreign language reported how one teacher's concern with a single textbook was handled.

> One of the teachers in our department is driving the rest of us crazy. Because of the textbook she wants to change the entire curriculum. To stop this, we used the argument that a curriculum built on a single textbook is anti thetical to thought and meaning. (Note: The teacher is referring to some of the ideas that came up in the dialogue about textbooks. This incident in itself is not a change in teaching technique but it shows how the teachers used a theoretical idea to avoid what they regarded as a detrimental change in the context in which they taught.)

Teachers of English, reading, and science, made the following comments in interviews or in post-essay responses in the spring of 1984.

> I think that some of the things we are doing now like peer teaching and more student talk in small groups will stick. We had time to think about it, try it, fail maybe, and come back to the group to talk about it.
>
> Look at some of the practical results...we taught each other better methods. I took some of these such as extending my lesson plans (to plan in time periods longer than one or two periods). Before, I moved quickly through each separate lesson...ignoring the student's pace because there is a lot to cover in science....
>
> More student partners and small group work were used. I allowed by students to learn together more than I did before. (She goes on to explain how students develop questions for discussion, how small groups are used for writing activities, and how students used a "buddy system" to help each other with difficult assignments.)

None of these changes in teaching practice is dramatic or glamorous. We suspect that their recounting before a group of governors or a blue ribbon national commission seeking to improve education might elicit little but polite nods. Educational researchers in the positivistic tradition are unlikely to be impressed with these changes. But if learning is to be reflective, if learning is mediated through a social environment that requires the development of shared meanings through communication, if intelligence is, in fact, energized by social interaction as both Dewey and Piaget hold, then these changes in learning activities

might be the first lights on the road to a more intellectual and independent kind of learning for both students and teachers in the William Tennent High School.

Conclusion

The dialogue process in the William Tennent High School has accomplished some worthwhile ends: teacher and principal morale is higher, teachers feel that change is possible and make concrete efforts to improve their learning and teaching practices, and the teachers and principal are aware of a theoretical knowledge base that is used to define significant problems of learning and teaching and to devise possible solutions that are tested in practice.

These outcomes move beyond some of the common limitations of school life noted by other writers. Sarason's observation that teachers lose their enthusiasm and experience little challenge after five years of teaching does not hold for teachers in the dialogue group;[78] the observation of Dillon-Petersen that teachers are seldom afforded the dignity or time to reflect on their teaching[79] does not hold for teachers in this intervention effort; the increasing trust that developed between the teachers and the principal and the kinds of teaching strategies they employed are very different from those Goodlad[80] found in his study of 38 schools; and the debilitating isolation of teachers noted by Lortie,[81] Lieberman and

78 Seymour B. Sarason, The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1982), p. 197

79 B. Dillon-Petersen, "Trusting Teachers to Know What is Good for Them" in Karen K. Zumwalt, ed., Improving Teaching (Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum and Development, 1986), p. 32

80 Goodlad, op. cit., 1984.

81 D. C. Lortie, School Teacher (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1975), p. 97

Miller,[82] and others, was bridged by the satisfying talk and the rediscovery by teachers in the dialogue group that their peers cared about teaching and were concerned about similar problems--problems which each teacher had previously "worried" about alone. Judged by the usual outcomes in school practice or most staff development programs, these outcomes are significant and unusual.

But the invocation of criteria that follows from descriptions of standard practice will never resolve the basic problems of American public education which is still too nonintellectual and complacent about its routines of schooling given the teacher and administrative talent that is in the system and the resources invested in it.

In William Tennent, the power of routine is real. The biggest step towards structural change, for example, is the principal's efforts to involve teachers in school-wide decision making. Teachers have run faculty meetings and six of them regularly meet with Kenneth Kastle, the principal, to talk over matters of school policy. What is sobering about this situation is that relatively little structural change has occured despite the fact that Mr. Kastle is a gutsy and able principal and that perhaps half of his faculty support thoughtful change. William Tennent high school still operates much like any one of its thousands of sisters in the U.S. Structural changes in high schools are essential if the more piecemeal quality gains, such as better teaching practices, are to be maintained. But

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82 Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller, Teachers, Their World, and Their Work: Implications for School Improvement (Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984), pp. 8-11

teaching gains alone are not good enough. Fundamental change springs from and is sustained as a process by the very character of the total institution--it is what is in the woodwork of the school that ultimately influences the quality of work life for teachers and principals and students. Fundamental change is proceeding slowly at Tennent. A teacher committee, for example, surveyed a representative sample of 40 teachers in March 1987 to determine if teachers perceived any change in the decision-making process that was then in its second year. Seventeen teachers did not respond. Only fourteen teachers said that they felt that the principal was encouraging teachers to participate in decision making, and 10 of these were teachers who were active in decision making and school improvement efforts.

While one can support genuine changes in morale and teaching practices within the dialogue group, important structural changes[83] have not occurred at Tennent although the beginnings of teacher involvement in decision making may yield solid results in the future. Mr. Kastle's comment in May 1987 may say it best: "No matter what we try to do, the system keeps closing in". This comment from an able principal might be pondered by people in policy-making positions who think that a longer school year, or more testing, or merit pay is the answer to educational reform. But these

83 Structural change is site-specific to some degree. In the Upper Perkiomen High School, Greenville, Pa., not reported here, the dialogue process resulted in the development of a ninth grade humanities course in which average and able students successfully studied together in a team-taught, double-period course. This couse will be required for all ninth graders. The humanities course necessitated radical changes in tracking policies, content, the way time is used, and in learning teaching practice that parallel those reported for the William Tennent high school

suggestions seem benign to the one made by Richard Gephardt[84], a presidential aspirant, who wants to "inundate our schools with the most advanced technologies" as part of his program to improve education. Once more we hear the voice of the technocrat. The system does, indeed, close in.

84 Morton Kondrake, "Gephart's Inside Moves", The New Republic 196 (June 1, 1987):20-22

SECTION 3: A SHORT ASSESSMENT OF THE DIALOGUE APPROACH TO SCHOOL RENEWAL

The major import of this article is that school renewal efforts that respect the intelligence of teachers and administrators and that link this intelligence to a process that is both democratic and inquiring, can achieve significant practical outcomes in the morale of teachers and, to a lesser extent, in principals; in the way that teachers and administrators think about learning and teaching and about the essential aims of what schools are truly for; and in the quality of the learning environments (not lesson plans alone) that teachers create to encourage thought, more democratic and open social interactions, and more teacher and student initiative and responsibility for the quality of classroom life. These outcomes go way beyond those reported in the literature for staff development programs.

The primary significance of these outcomes, however, is that they suggest the practical power of the theory from which they spring. Philosophically-grounded theory, Deweyan theory in our work, provides a comprehensive conceptual map of the educational territory that must be traversed, however haltingly, in staff development programs whose aim is fundamental educational renewal. Deweyan theory is comprehensive and conceptually coherent.

"Comprehensiveness" and "conceptual coherence" are two qualities that the body of educational research lacks after six decades of effort because it is based on the mechanistic

assumptions of psychological behaviorism. This deficiency is clearly apparent in the recent research on "effective" teaching and "effective" schools which policy-makers have regrettably accepted as "scientific" fact.

Second, the dialogue process as an intervention strategy frankly recognizes that the root problem of better schools is changing the way that we <u>think</u> about the possibilities for public education in a democratic society. If we think that teaching is a gaggle of "skills" and that reading is another gaggle of "skills", for example, we will surely fail (even on the low criterion of test scores) and posterity will rightly judge us harshly. Such definitions, which we believe to be implicitly operant in most educational practice and research today, could only be taken seriously in the Age of the Machine. No educated Greek, no child of the Renaissance, indeed no Jefferson or Piaget or Dewey in our own time, could take such materialistic pretensions seriously because they imperil the mind and the feelings and ultimately they will undermine the democratic values on which our society is based.

Third, a new an interesting hypothesis emerges from our work that is particularly true of the pattern of responses in the William Tennent High School (and in the Upper Perkiomen School District that is not reported here).

The hypothesis can be generally stated this way: Educational renewal involves the simultaneous interaction of feelings, ideas, and changes in practices each of which emerges in a pattern of successive overlapping phases in time periods of 12 to 15 months. In the William Tennent high school, for example, the feelings of the

participants, which included the elements of trust and morale, emerged first; after the feelings had been worked through, the stage was set for the relatively unfettered consideration of ideas, the second phase, in which the participants seemed willing to discuss ideas for both their intrinsic value and for their support of, or challenge to, existing practice; the third phase to emerge was that of actual changes in teaching and in administrative practices.

One interesting facet of this pattern is that practices were the last to change and seemed to be "built" on what many practitioners would regard as the more ephemeral base of feelings and ideas. We feel that it is impractical to try to change practice by "frontal assualt" (the way to the "behavioral objective" may not be a straight line, but a series of smaller and smaller concentric circles). This three-phase pattern is, of course, also a function of the dialogue itself because it encourages the open expression of ideas and feelings.[85]

Fourth, it is not at all clear at this point if the dialogue process can effect changes in the taken-for-granted routines of schooling--the way time is used, the way the curriculum is structured, the way that teachers and students and subjects "come together", the matters of governance and so forth. The harshest judgment is that the dialogue process has not demonstrated the

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[85] There was much distrust of the dialogue process during the one-semester pilot phase in 1983 at Tennent high school. The integrity of the dialogue process was questioned by many teachers in Group 1 because they felt, among other concerns, that the administration had a hidden agenda. They were upset at the principal's rejection the preceding year of recommendations by a teacher committee to improve student self-concept. The principal rejected the teachers' recommendations on the grounds that they were"...perpheral because they did not mention classroom practices." The details of the trust issue cannot be given in this summary account.

capability of solving this knotty problem. If changes in school structure do not occur on some sites within the next four years, the fair conclusion would be that the dialogue process may be a good way to improve morale or to improve the quality of learning in some respects, but that it falls short of what is needed to revitalize public education. Under such conditions, in fact, the dialogue process might indeed delay the testing of more fundamental solutions because it would give the appearance of progress while leaving untouched the fundamental deficiencies of structure and process that make too many schools the nonintellectual and boring places they often are.

The technocratic mind-set may yet prove to be the most powerful of the two. The choice facing educators, if we but knew, might be that between a false but satisfying clarity and the truer but more ambiguous process that attempts fundamental solutions however out of phase they may be with the temper of that tiny slice of time we temporarily occupy.